

The atmospheric CH₄ increase since the Last Glacial Maximum

(1). Source estimates

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ABSTRACT

An estimate of the distribution of wetland area and associated CH₄ emission is presented for the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM, 18 kyr BP, kiloyear Before Present) and the Pre-Industrial Holocene (PIH, 9000–200 years BP). The wetland source, combined with estimates of the other biogenic sources and sink, yields total source strengths of 120 and 180 Tg CH₄/yr for LGM and PIH respectively. These source strengths are shown to be consistent with source estimates inferred from a photochemical model, and point to changes in wetland CH₄ source as a major factor driving the atmospheric CH₄ increase from LGM to PIH.

1. Introduction

Methane is an important trace gas involved in the radiative budget and atmospheric chemistry. Methane measurements performed on air bubbles trapped in Greenland and Antarctic ice cores reveal a doubling of its atmospheric concentration from 350 ppbv (part per billion by volume) during the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM) to 650 ppbv during the Preindustrial Holocene (PIH) (Stauffer et al., 1988; Chappellaz et al., 1990), followed by an unprecedented increase during the last 2 centuries (Craig and Chou, 1982; Khalil and Rasmussen, 1982; Rasmussen and Khalil, 1984; Stauffer et al., 1985; Pearman et al., 1986; Raynaud et al., 1988). At present, the atmospheric CH₄ level is ~1700 ppbv and is increasing at a rate of 0.8–1.0%/yr (Rasmussen and Khalil, 1986; Steele et al., 1987; Blake and Rowland, 1988). The future rate of increase and therefore the role of CH₄ in future climate remain uncertain as its budget is not

well known. In particular, the natural source strengths and their link with climate change must be determined in order to estimate a potential feedback in the context of future warming.

There have been several recent attempts to analyze CH₄ budgets for the LGM and/or PIH (McElroy, 1989; Valentin, 1990; Crutzen and Zimmermann, 1991; Pinto and Khalil, 1991). These studies use photochemical models to estimate OH (hydroxyl radical) oxidation of CH₄ (i.e., the CH₄ lifetime) and infer source strengths required to produce the measured CH₄ concentrations deduced from ice cores. Because the models make varying assumptions about CO, NO_x, O₃, and temperature, thereby obtaining different OH distributions, the inferred CH₄ sources range from 90–180 Tg CH₄/yr for the LGM and 170–250 Tg CH₄/yr for the PIH. In contrast, we approach the historical CH₄ budget by making a direct and quantified estimate of methane sources and determining their consistency with atmospheric concentrations in a photochemical model. This paper addresses the source estimate with a focus on wetland changes from LGM to the present and gives photochemical model results demonstrating the self-consistency of this budget with the ice-core record. A companion paper (Thompson et al.,

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1993) describes the photochemical calculations in more detail and focuses on the consequences of CH₄ emission changes for LGM and PIH atmospheric chemical composition.

2. Methane sources and soil sink

The basis for our present-day CH₄ budget is a recent three-dimensional model synthesis (Fung et al., 1991) which is constrained by all the available CH₄ observations, i.e., the geographical and seasonal distribution of atmospheric CH₄, its isotopic composition, the strength and geographical distribution of some sources, and the modelled three-dimensional global distribution of OH (Spivakovsky et al., 1990a, b). We consider their preferred budget scenario which satisfies most of the constraints; it includes a global annual source of 500 Tg, with 115 Tg from wetlands, 55 Tg from biomass burning, 80 Tg from animals, and 20 Tg from termites. The remainder of the sources are from rice cultivation, landfills, and from coal and gas exploration and transmission. Of the 460 Tg/yr sink, 450 Tg/yr is caused by chemical destruction in the atmosphere and 10 Tg/yr is attributed to consumption of methane in dry soils. In the following, we start with the methane sources and sinks for today, and estimate how each has been altered for the PIH and LGM.

There are few direct and global observations of the components of the natural CH₄ budget on the time scale considered here. For the PIH, we surveyed historical information about human impacts on the biosphere and deduced changes in source activities and methane flux.

For LGM, direct information on the extent and distribution of wetlands, the largest single CH₄ source, is sparse and generally not quantified (e.g., Petit-Maire et al., 1991). While the existence of wetlands is predicated on positive water balance and high moisture retention by the soils, there is no scheme that predicts wetland distribution based on climate. Here we use today's distributions to establish wetland occurrence as a function of two correlates: the dominant vegetation type, as a broad indicator of hydrologic, climate and edaphic conditions; and the slope of the terrain, a major control of drainage and runoff. The vegetation distribution for the LGM is then used together with the topography to predict the wetland distribution

of the LGM. Similarly, our strategy for estimating the other LGM sources also uses vegetation and its changes as a proxy. The vegetation and slope data are described below.

Vegetation. Because vegetation is an identifying characteristic of wetlands, we categorize wetland distribution into several groups based on their vegetation association, and investigate how wetland areas in each group have changed. There are several digital databases of today's vegetation distribution to facilitate our analysis (Matthews, 1983; Henderson-Sellers and Wilson, 1983). However, there is only one published global vegetation map for the LGM (Adams et al., 1990). We note that vegetation distributions for today and LGM have also been modelled using bioclimatic schemes (Prentice, 1990; Prentice and Fung, 1990). However, uncertainties in the modelled climate for the LGM (Rind and Peteet, 1985) would cloud the interpretation of vegetational and other changes. We thus use the Adams vegetation maps for today and the LGM as the basis for our analysis.

The vegetation classification of Adams et al. (1990) consists of 24 vegetation types, grouped into 12 types in their published maps. The LGM vegetation distribution was reconstructed based on palynological, pedological and sedimentological paleodata. We digitized the maps for both today and the LGM at 1° × 1° resolution for our analysis. As the projection of the original maps was unknown, the vegetation data base of Matthews (1983) was used as a guide for the digitization. This procedure results in areal estimates of each vegetation type that are slightly different from those published. However, as visual comparison of the digitized and published maps was favorable, and the projection of the digitized maps was known, the updated areal estimates were deemed more accurate (J. Adams, personal communication).

Terrain slope. Wetland ecosystems are often found in flat or relatively flat ground, where runoff is impeded or at slow enough a rate so that anoxic conditions in the soil can exist. Therefore, the slope of the terrain provides a quantitative constraint for selecting regions of potential wetland occurrence. The ETOP05 data set (NGDC, 1988) combines bathymetry data from the US Naval Oceanographic Office with land elevations obtained from

remote sensing and national surveys. Although the grid spacing of the data base is $5' \times 5'$, the information is at $5' \times 5'$ only for the oceans, the contiguous United States, Japan, Western Europe, New Zealand and Australia; and is at $10' \times 10'$ elsewhere (NGDC, 1988). From this high-resolution data set, we computed the mean slope within each $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ grid.

Terrain slopes for the LGM were calculated using the ETOP05 data set with a sea-level drop of 130 m (Fairbanks, 1989) and with the continental ice sheets added (CLIMAP Project Members, 1981).

2.1. Wetlands

Anaerobic decomposition of organic matter in wetlands is the most important natural source of methane, comprising 15–25% of the global methane source today. Estimation of the global annual methane emission from this source requires information about (1) the areal extent of wetlands; (2) the period of inundation or methane production during the year; and (3) the rate of methane emission to the atmosphere during the production period.

2.1.1. Distribution of wetlands for today. For today, the global distribution of wetlands was compiled from existing maps and data bases using information about vegetation, soil and inundation characteristics (Matthews and Fung, 1987; Aselmann and Crutzen, 1989). The global wetland area estimated by these authors is $5300 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$ and $5700 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$, respectively. Differences between the two studies lie essentially in the Amazon basin, Australia, Alaska and Canada (see Aselmann and Crutzen, 1989, for a discussion). However the latitudinal distributions match fairly well: the wetlands are mainly distributed into two latitudinal bands, between 70° and 50° N and between 20° N and 30° S . In our analysis, we use the global data base at 1° resolution of Matthews and Fung (1987).

Wetland/vegetation relationship. Today's distribution of wetland area among the vegetation types of Adams et al. (1990) is given in Fig. 1a and Table 1. Because of their large expanse, 24% of the total wetlands are associated with boreal conifer forests. Temperate and tropical forests and woodlands also include a large fraction of the global wetland area (50% all together) whereas, as expected, a small part is associated with arid

Table 1. *Present-day relationship between wetlands and vegetation groups and between wetlands and slope of terrain*

Vegetation type (Adams et al., 1990)	% of global wetland area today (PIH)	Distribution (%) of wetlands in each slope class (%)					
		0– 0.2	0.2– 0.4	0.4– 0.6	0.6– 0.8	0.8– 1.0	1.0– more
tropical moist forest	11.2 (11.8)	63.5	10.2	5.1	2.6	3.0	15.5
tropical scrub/woodland	16.5 (15.8)	52.1	22.5	8.8	6.2	2.9	7.6
grassland	10.1 (8.5)	66.3	21.9	5.4	2.0	1.4	2.9
semi-desert/steppe	2.6 (2.2)	63.9	10.9	6.1	2.8	0.7	15.6
temperate broad-leaved forest	8.1 (16.0)	66.4	24.2	4.7	0.3	2.6	1.7
boreal/conifer forest	24.2 (22.9)	47.6	21.6	13.6	5.6	3.5	8.2
open conifer woodland	14.0 (11.7)	53.2	18.9	12.8	4.3	3.2	7.6
tundra	11.4 (9.5)	41.7	19.2	9.3	6.0	5.1	18.7
polar desert	0.0 (0.0)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
ice	0.0 (0.0)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
desert	1.9 (1.6)	59.3	12.9	2.8	1.3	1.6	22.0
southern steppe/tundra	0.0 (0.0)	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
global	100.0 (100.0)	54.4	19.6	9.3	4.3	3.1	9.4

The calculations are based on wetland (Matthews and Fung, 1987), vegetation (Adams et al., 1990) and topography (NGDC, 1988) global datasets. Wetland area associated with polar desert ($23 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$) is rounded to zero.

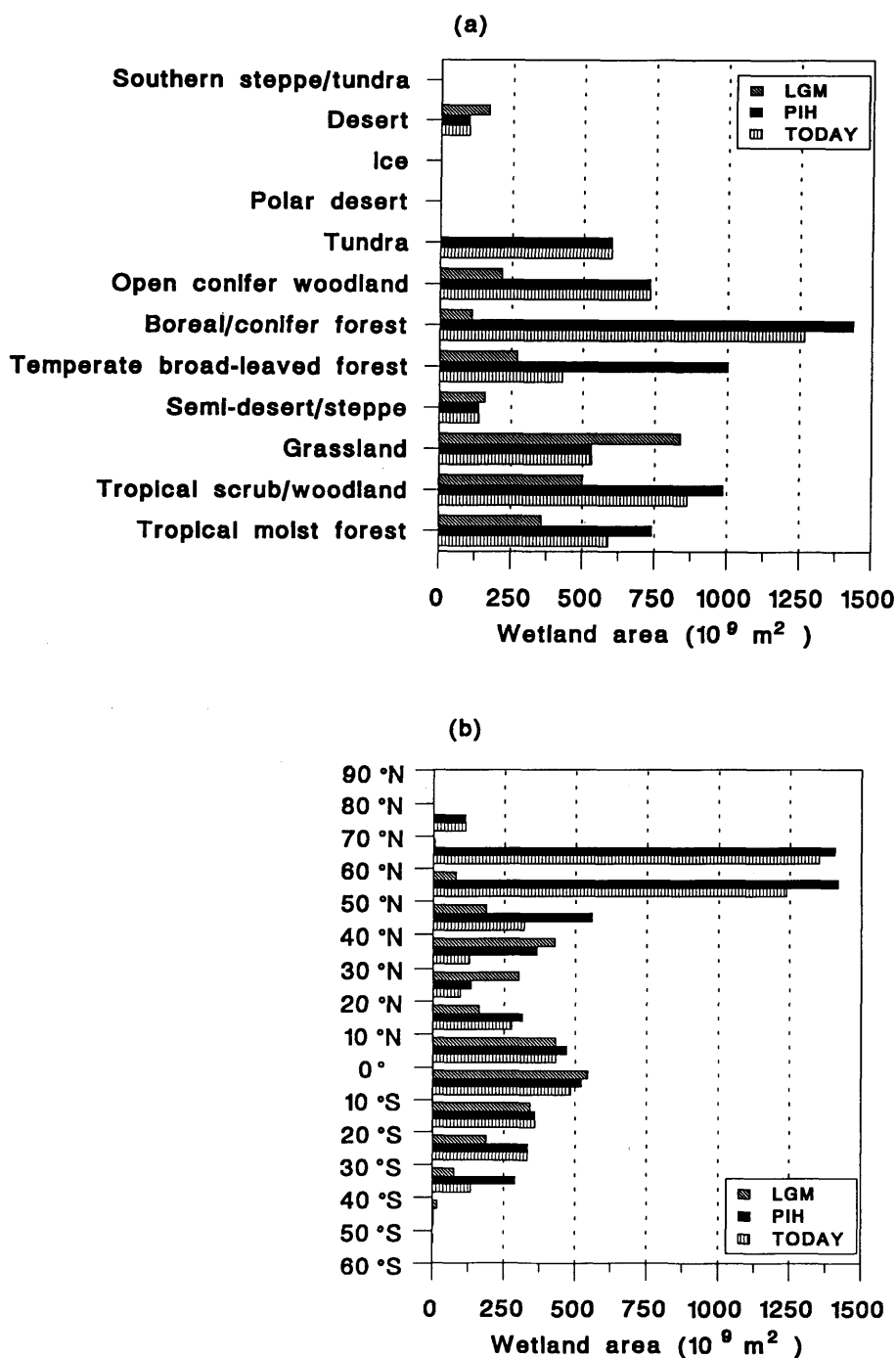


Fig. 1. (a) Global wetland area associated with broad vegetation groups for present-day, PIH and LGM. The vegetation groups are those defined in Adams et al. (1990). (b) Latitudinal distribution of wetland areas for present-day, PIH and LGM.

vegetation (less than 5% in semi-desert and desert). As has been discussed in Matthews and Fung (1987), about two-thirds of the global wetland area are scattered over the surface of the world, and occupy <10% of many a 1° grid. Thus, they cover at most on the order of 10% of the total area of a given vegetation type: the wetland coverage is 8.9% for open conifer woodlands and tundra, 8.1% for boreal/conifer forests, and 4.8% for tropical moist forests. The inundated fractions are much lower in the arid/semi-arid vegetation: 3.7% for tropical scrub and woodlands, 3.0% for grasslands, 1.1% for semi-deserts and 0.5% for deserts.

Wetland/slope relationship. Fig. 2 illustrates the frequency distributions of wetland area and land surface area as a function of the slope of the terrain. About 54% of the present-day global wetland area is associated with a slope smaller than 0.2% (at 1° resolution); the percentage increases to 74% for slopes <0.4%. By contrast,

23 and 45% of the land surface are associated with slopes of <0.2% and 0.4%, respectively. As is expected, wetlands are mainly associated with small slopes.

The frequency distribution of wetland areas for different vegetation groups and slope classes is shown in Table 1. For most vegetation groups, over half of the wetlands occurs in areas with slopes <0.2%. Although 26% of the global wetland area is found at slopes >0.4%, these wetlands are not scattered through the other vegetation groups; they are essentially found in conifer forests/woodlands and tundra. For example, about 1/5 of the wetlands associated with tundra are found at slopes steeper than 1.0%. For these wetlands on steep terrain, factors such as texture and water holding capacity of the soil may be important for explaining their occurrence. Also our slope calculation at 1° resolution cannot represent scattered depressions in the ground which can favor wetland occurrence in undulating landscapes (such as in Scandinavia and Alaska).

2.1.2. Distribution of wetlands for PIH. The population growth and demands in the last 200 years have resulted in a depletion of wetlands today. Wetlands were drained and converted for agricultural, residential and other uses. Also peat is exploited for fuel. To estimate the wetland area in the PIH, we carried out a survey of the history of wetland exploitation. The regions surveyed include: the contiguous United States, the Southern Taiga of Russia, Finland, United Kingdom, Australasia and South-Southeast Asia. These are described below.

The contiguous United States. Several estimates exist on the natural wetland extent in the presettlement time and a medium range is $600\text{--}750 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$ (Roe and Ayres, 1954; Shaw and Fredine, 1956; Office of Technology Assessment, 1984; Mitsch and Gosselink, 1986). Today the figure is about $200 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$ (Matthews and Fung, 1987; Aselmann and Crutzen, 1989). The Alaskan and Canadian wetlands have not been significantly altered by human activities so far (Armentano and Menges, 1986).

The Southern Taiga of Russia. Botch and Masing (1983) estimate that about 70% of the preexisting mires in this region have been reclaimed. From the data set of Matthews and Fung (1987), about $235 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$ of bogs and

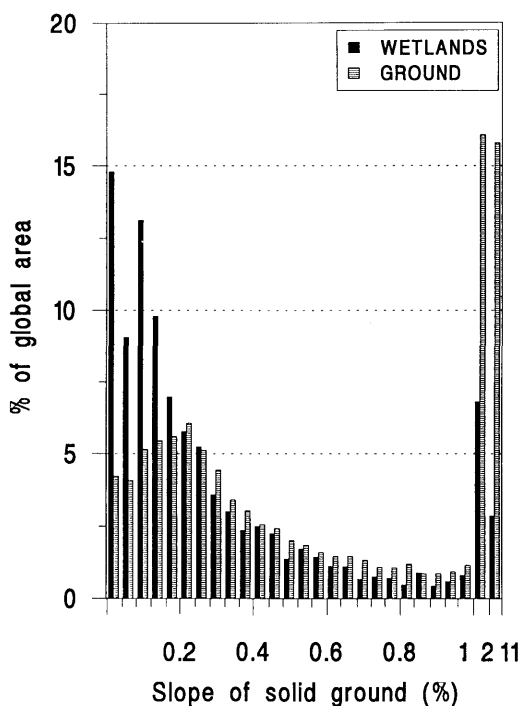


Fig. 2. Distribution of present-day wetland and land surface area as a function of mean terrain slope resolved at 1° resolution.

swamps are there today, suggesting a potential PIH area of $780 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$ and a cultivation area of $545 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$. However from land use data (Matthews, 1983), we find that only $155 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$ are currently cultivated in the Southern Taiga. We use this more conservative figure as the converted wetland area in the region since PIH.

Finland. Ruuhijärvi (1983) estimates that $55 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$ of the original $104 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$ of wetlands have been reclaimed since PIH.

United Kingdom. As much as half of the lowland fens and mires of United Kingdom have been lost by exploitation (Williams, 1990); their present-day area is estimated to be $27 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$ (Taylor, 1983), leading to a potential PIH cover of $54 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$.

Australasia. The reclamation in the New South Wales, Western and South Australia and Victoria led to a loss of about 60% of the natural wetlands (Campbell, 1983). With $104 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$ of wetlands in these four states today (from the data of Matthews and Fung, 1987), we obtain a PIH wetland area of $260 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$ in the South of Australia.

South-Southeast Asia. For the 1880 period, Flint and Richards (1993) estimate a wetland surface of $422 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$ in a studied area including Northern India, Bangladesh, Burma, Thailand, Malaysia, Brunei and Indonesia. By the 1980's, the figure decreases to $270 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$.

Globally the exploitation amounted to $1020 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$, so that the global wetland area for the PIH is $6260 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$. As can be expected from the data sources, the wetland depletion occurred mainly in Northern mid-latitudes (30°N – 60°N), totalling there $657 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$.

To obtain the wetland distribution for the PIH, we assumed that the increase in wetland areas for each vegetation type in each country/region is proportional to today's distribution of the vegetation types within that country/region. The frequency distribution of wetland areas in different slope classes for each vegetation group is kept identical for today and PIH.

As a consequence of the wetland areal change between PIH and today, the distribution of PIH wetlands among vegetation groups differs from today's distribution: 56% of wetland depletion

takes place in temperate broad-leaved forests and the other 44% occurs equally between tropical moist forests, tropical scrub/woodlands and boreal/conifer forests. Accordingly, the fraction wetland/vegetation increases from 3.3% (today) to 7.8% (PIH) in temperate broad-leaved forests, and reaches 4.2, 6.0 and 9.1% in tropical scrub/woodlands, tropical moist forests and boreal/conifer forests, respectively.

Note that uncertainties must surround the estimates of wetland area of the PIH. First, there is little historical information available for other parts of the world (especially China, Africa and South America). Second, evolving methods of investigation, wetland classification, and purpose of survey in the available inventory studies do not allow for precise interpretation of areal change.

2.1.3. Distribution of wetlands for LGM. By applying the PIH wetland/vegetation/slope relationship presented in Table 1 to the vegetation and slope distribution for the LGM, we obtained the distribution of wetlands for the LGM (Figs. 1a and 3). A category "southern steppe-tundra" was created by Adams et al. (1990) to account for a widespread vegetation type with no present analogue; its composition suggesting a similarity with dry tundra and polar desert, we assume that it was wetland-free. Because of the colder and generally drier climate during the LGM, there is a 55–60% reduction of tropical forests and woodlands. Temperate and boreal forests and woodlands, which have the largest areal expanse of wetlands for today's climate, occupied only 15% of today's area. According to Adams et al. (1990), the tundra vegetation had no analogue during the LGM.

These changes of vegetation coverage between PIH and LGM lead to a decrease by 58% of the global wetland area, totalling then $2615 \times 10^9 \text{ m}^2$. The large wetland reductions concern these associated with tropical, temperate and boreal forests/woodlands as well as tundra. The use of the terrain slope as a constraint on wetland occurrence modulates the vegetation effect alone. For instance, tropical forests are reduced globally by 59% but they developed on the flat continental shelves of Southeast Asia; therefore, wetlands associated with this vegetation group were reduced by only 52%. When removing the slope constraint on wetland occurrence, the vegetation change

from PIH to LGM alone leads to a decrease of the global wetland coverage by 62 %; thus vegetation alone drives much of the wetland areal change.

2.1.4. Changes in wetland latitudinal distribution. Fig. 1b presents the distribution of wetland areas as a function of latitudinal bands of 10° , for today, PIH and LGM. Northward from 40°N , the wetland extent during the LGM is considerably reduced as an effect of ice sheet growth on what is now large peat basins. Between 40°N and 20°N , there is a small expanse of wetlands linked to the existence of conifer forests and woodlands around the China Sea and south of the Laurentide ice sheet (Fig. 3). Southward, the wetland coverage is generally decreased. On the global decrease of 58 % of the wetland area from PIH to LGM, 42 % of the decrease take place south of 20°N and 58 % occur in high/middle north latitudes.

2.1.5. Estimation of methane emission. Annual emission of methane from wetlands depends on the duration of inundation or methane production and the rate of methane escape to the atmosphere during this period. Fung et al. (1991) constructed a global model that estimated both emission seasons and emission rates based on the climatology of monthly surface air temperature and precipitation. For regions experiencing freeze/thaw cycles, the emission season begins when monthly mean sur-

face temperature rises above 5°C and snow cover vanishes; the season ends when temperature falls below 0°C . For other regions, the emission season corresponds to the months when mean precipitation exceeds mean potential evaporation. For high-latitude bogs, methane fluxes were assumed to be governed primarily by temperature and were calculated using relationships derived from field measurements. For tropical wetlands, the methane flux was assumed to be constant during the emission period.

The model was applied to each 1° grid containing wetlands in the data base of Matthews and Fung (1987), and resulted in emissions of 30 Tg/yr from high-latitude bogs, 5 Tg/yr from dry tundra and 80 Tg/yr from middle and low latitude wetlands.

The wetland association with vegetation groups is then used to calculate a mean annual flux of methane associated with each vegetation type (Table 2). The resulting distribution reveals a trend toward decreasing annual fluxes from low to high latitudes: the highest values are associated with tropical forests whereas tundra regions experience the lowest annual CH_4 fluxes. Conifer forests and woodlands, which include the largest wetland areas, emit little methane on an annual basis. Therefore the CH_4 emission from tropical forests is even higher than from boreal forests (Table 2).

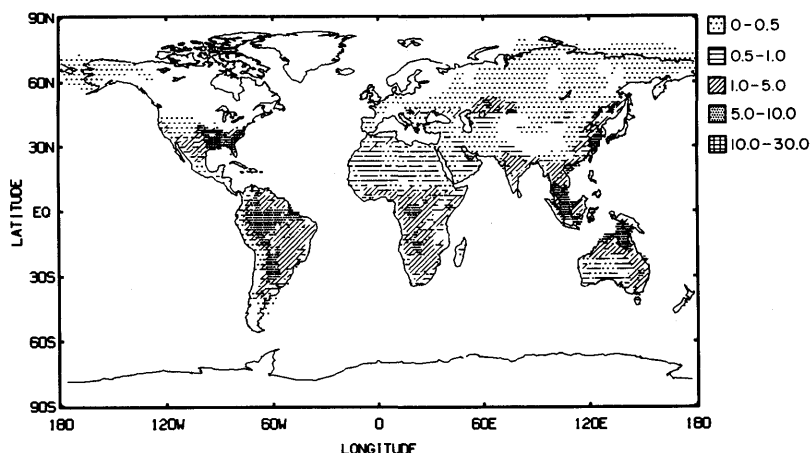


Fig. 3. Global map of wetland areal distribution during the Last Glacial Maximum, expressed as a fractional occurrence at 1° resolution. 6 classes are represented: ice (white); 0–0.5 % (wide dots), 0.5–1.0 % (wide horizontal lines), 1–5 % (diagonal lines) and 5–10 % (dense dots), > 10 % (up to 27 %; cross-lines).

Table 2. Annual CH₄ flux, area and CH₄ emission of wetlands in each vegetation group and for today, the Pre-Industrial Holocene (PIH) and the Last Glacial Maximum (LGM)

Vegetation type (Adams et al., 1990)	CH ₄ flux (g m ⁻² yr ⁻¹)	Wetland area (10 ⁹ m ²)			CH ₄ emission (Tg/yr)		
	today (PIH)	today	PIH	LGM	today	PIH	LGM
tropical moist forest	46.1 (43.8)	589	741	357	27	33	16
tropical scrub/woodland	28.7 (27.4)	863	988	500	25	27	14
grassland	39.7 (39.7)	531	531	839	21	21	33
semi-desert/steppe	13.9 (13.9)	138	138	158	2	2	2
temperate broad-leaved forest	21.3 (19.5)	426	1001	270	9	20	5
boreal/conifer forest	11.6 (11.7)	1266	1434	110	15	17	1
open conifer woodland	7.9 (7.9)	732	732	215	6	6	2
tundra	6.0 (6.0)	596	596	0	8*	8	0
polar desert	0.0 (0.0)	0	0	0	0	0	0
ice	0.0 (0.0)	0	0	0	0	0	0
desert	19.8 (19.8)	99	99	167	2	2	3
southern steppe/tundra	0.0 (0.0)	0	0	0	0	0	0
global		5240	6260	2615	115	136	76

The annual flux is assumed identical for PIH and LGM.

* The present-day source of 5 Tg/yr from dry tundra is included in the CH₄ emission from the tundra vegetation group.

To obtain the PIH wetland source, we calculated the mean annual flux arising from today's wetlands in the country/regions with wetland exploitation, and we applied it to the extra PIH wetlands in each country/region. Globally this results in a wetland source strength of 135 Tg/yr (+17%). The emission from wetlands associated with temperate forests is more than doubled, reaching 20 Tg/yr (Table 2). The incorporation of extra PIH wetlands changes slightly the mean annual flux calculated for each vegetation group (Table 2). These PIH fluxes are the basis for the estimation of the LGM wetland source, as described below.

For the LGM, climatological information needed by the Fung et al., model is not available from paleodata. As already noted above, the modelled climate for the LGM is uncertain and does not fit well with the vegetation distribution reconstructed from paleodata (Prentice and Fung, 1990; Adams et al., 1990). Therefore we assume that the mean annual flux of methane attributed to each wetland/vegetation categories for PIH remained identical during the LGM. This is not unreasonable because a given vegetation can exist only under a limited range of climatic conditions and our approach implies unchanging climatic conditions for each wetland/vegetation category.

For each vegetation type, the LGM wetland source is then the product of the PIH mean annual flux and the LGM wetland area.

The resulting LGM source strengths are shown in Table 2. Globally there is a 44% reduction of the wetland source, totalling 75 Tg/yr. The decrease in CH₄ emission is slightly smaller than the reduction in wetland area, due to the relatively high annual emission from grassland-associated wetlands, which expanded by 58%.

The latitudinal distribution of the wetland source is also largely changed: during PIH, 60% of the emissions occur in the Northern Hemisphere and the latitudinal profile presents two bands, between 70°N–30°N and between 10°N–40°S; on the other hand during LGM, the wetland emissions are about equally distributed between the Northern and Southern Hemispheres (47% and 53% respectively) and 63% arise from the Tropics between 10°N–20°S. The Northern mid and high latitudes experience a reduction of CH₄ emission of 43 Tg/yr whereas the decrease in regions south of 20°N is smaller, –17 Tg/yr.

2.2. Other CH₄ sources

Non-wetland natural sources include wild animals, termites, natural fires, oceans, freshwater and CH₄ hydrates (Table 3). During the latest part

Table 3. *Methane natural budgets for today, the Pre-Industrial Holocene, and the Last Glacial Maximum. Unit is Tg CH₄/yr*

Source/sink	Present*	Preindustrial Holocene	LGM
wetlands	115	135	75
wild animals	2–6	15	20
termites	20	20	20
wildfires	5	5	5
ocean/freshwater	10	10	10
CH ₄ hydrates	5	5	0
soil sink	–10	–10	–10
total	150	180	120

* For present-day, human activities (domestic animals, rice cultivation, landfills, gas and coal exploitation, and human-induced fires) add another 340 Tg CH₄/yr (Fung et al., 1991).

of the PIH, some anthropogenic sources (rice cultivation, domestic animals) may have added to these natural sources. If we assume that they were proportional to the human population, they would amount to 20 Tg CH₄/yr. However during most of the PIH, the agricultural impact on the CH₄ budget was probably negligible and we will not consider these anthropogenic sources in our PIH budget.

Wild animals. The present-day CH₄ source from wild animals has been estimated to 2–6 Tg CH₄/yr (Crutzen et al., 1986), with the main contribution from tropical regions. Assigning a PIH figure is tentative as no global inventory exists; however, large-scale hunting and the shrinking of wildlife habitats probably led to a large decrease of wild animal populations since the last century. For instance, 50 to 70 million bison were living in North America before European settlement and large populations existed in Eurasia. Considering a PIH global population equivalent to the current buffalo population (120 million; Crutzen et al., 1986) and the same CH₄ production per individual (same biological family), gives a PIH source from bison of 6 Tg CH₄/yr. Therefore, we estimate here a global PIH source of CH₄ from wild animals of 15 Tg/yr.

For LGM, we assume a linear relationship between animal populations and the extent of tropical/temperate grasslands, their main habitat.

The reconstructed LGM landscape leads to an increased occurrence of grassland by ~50%, which implies a LGM source from wild animals of about 20 Tg CH₄/yr.

Termites. The PIH termite source is considered identical to present-day (20 Tg CH₄/yr, Fung et al., 1991), as cultivated areas in undeveloped countries and the ecosystems they replaced are both associated with termites. About 41% of this source emanates from savannas and 35% from tropical forests (Zimmerman et al., 1982; Fraser et al., 1986). During the LGM, the increase in savannas was accompanied by a decrease in tropical forests, resulting in no significant change in the areal extent of termite habitat. The LGM termite source remains at 20 Tg CH₄/yr.

Wildfires. At most, 10% of the biomass burning today is naturally induced (Crutzen and Andreae, 1990). This gives a PIH source of 5 Tg CH₄/yr using the value of Fung et al. (1991) for today. The parameters controlling the frequency and strength of wildfires are mainly the type of vegetation, the frequency of lightning (not associated with heavy rainfall) and the water stress on vegetation (drought). The last two ones being unconstrained, the CH₄ source for LGM is kept constant at 5 Tg/yr.

Other sources. Emissions from ocean, freshwater and CH₄ hydrates are perturbed primarily by climate, and not by human activities. We therefore kept their PIH emissions at today's levels. For the LGM, the increased solubility of CH₄ in the colder ocean, the higher concentration gradient between the atmosphere and the open water, and the decreased surface of the global ocean (increased sea-ice extent and lower sea-level) may compensate each other, and so this source is kept at 10 Tg CH₄/yr. However, the colder climate is likely to enhance the stability of hydrates, whose source strength we reduced to zero.

2.3. Soil sink

The present-day global soil uptake is considered here as only –10 Tg CH₄/yr (Fung et al., 1991). As absorption rates are low in cultivated soils (Keller et al., 1990; Mosier et al., 1991), the PIH soil sink should be higher than today, but the difference can be neglected with a sink strength of –10 Tg CH₄/yr. The soil sink is strongest in sandy soils, which underlie temperate and boreal forests,

and deserts (Born et al., 1990; Whalen et al., 1991; Delmas et al., 1992; Dörr et al., 1993). The large decrease in boreal forests and large increase of desert area in the reconstructed landscape thus results in little change in the LGM soil sink from the PIH value, that is $-10 \text{ Tg CH}_4/\text{yr}$.

2.4. Summary budget

Globally, we propose a PIH CH₄ source (minus the soil sink) of 180 Tg/yr (Table 3), with a main contribution from wetlands (75 %). For LGM, we obtain a smaller source of $120 \text{ Tg CH}_4/\text{yr}$, with a wetland contribution down to 63 %.

3. Photochemical model calculations

A multibox one-dimensional model (Thompson et al., 1990) is used to calculate atmospheric CH₄ profiles compatible with the PIH and LGM sources. Besides CH₄, the model simulates 24 other trace gases and transients, including OH, O₃, CO, NO and H₂O₂ (hydrogen peroxide). The kinetics scheme used in the model is described in Thompson and Cicerone (1986); an updated rate coefficient for the reaction between CH₄ and OH is taken from Vaghjani and Ravishankara (1991). The model boxes represent 6 chemically distinct environments (e.g., continental and marine northern mid-latitudes, tropical and southern hemisphere marine regions) spanning 63°N to 63°S and covering ~90 % of the surface area of the globe. The model is initialized for 1990 conditions by adjusting model fluxes of CH₄, CO and NO to reproduce present-day surface mixing ratios of NO_x, CO, CH₄, O₃, and OH typical of each region. There is no interbox transport; therefore model fluxes represent the net fluxes resulting from surface and interbox exchange. The $440 \text{ Tg CH}_4/\text{yr}$ flux thus deduced is somewhat lower than the sources used in the Fung et al. (1991) 3-D model budget. Concentrations and budgets reported refer to global means or fluxes obtained by averaging over the six regions and scaling up to total Earth area. Mean surface values of CO, NO_x, and O₃, and the global abundance of OH are given in Table 4.

To include the range of CH₄ levels from the LGM up to present-day, calculations are made with CH₄ fluxes introduced incrementally from 110 to 550 Tg/yr . Besides forcing by CH₄ sources, we must consider atmospheric O₃, H₂O, CO and

Table 4. *Photochemical model input and output*

	Present*	Preindustrial Holocene	LGM
model input			
CH ₄ flux (Tg/yr)	440	190	110
CO flux (Tg C/yr)	770	440	110
NO flux (Tg N/yr)	39	22	5.5
temperature (K)	288.2	288.2	283.7
model output (Global mean, 0 km)			
CH ₄ (ppbv)	1800	700	350
CO (ppbv)	120	50	16
NO _x (pptv)	260	90	33
O ₃ (ppbv)	27	16	11
OH ($10^{11} \text{ molec} \cdot \text{cm}^{-2}$) (0–15 km)	9.3	11.5	12.2

* Details of regional fluxes and mixing ratios are given in Thompson et al. (1993).

NO whose reactions with OH affect the lifetime of CH₄ in the atmosphere. The sources of CO and NO have also increased since preindustrial times but in ways more difficult to quantify than CH₄. They are parameterized in the model calculations by simulating total CO budgets from $110\text{--}880 \text{ Tg C/yr}$ and NO from $5.5\text{--}44 \text{ Tg N/yr}$. The higher ends of these ranges represent typical budgets for present-day conditions (Khalil and Rasmussen, 1990; Logan, 1983); the lower ends are reasonable for pristine atmospheres. The NO and CO budgets are scaled together because most of their sources (combustion, biomass burning, ocean and soils) are similar. Fig. 4 shows model-calculated CH₄ mixing ratios as a function of CH₄, CO and NO fluxes. The LGM CH₄ mixing ratio, 350 ppbv (Stauffer et al., 1988; Chappellaz et al., 1990) is consistent with a CH₄ flux of $110\text{--}130 \text{ Tg/yr}$, close to the LGM budget from paleodata and reconstructed vegetation (Table 4). When model runs are repeated with temperature profiles appropriate for LGM conditions (-4.5 K at the surface, Hansen et al., 1984), the CH₄ fluxes supporting 350 ppbv CH₄ are $100\text{--}110 \text{ Tg/yr}$.

4. Discussion

In this study, an effort is made to quantify changes of the wetland CH₄ source and other

minor sources, from the Last Glacial Maximum to the present. Historical information is used to estimate the anthropogenic impact on the global flux of methane since the preindustrial Holocene; two correlates, vegetation and topography, of the wetland distribution provide an estimate of the wetland coverage and activity during the LGM, and the vegetation is also used to estimate other sources. These estimates result in a global flux of 180 Tg/yr for the PIH and 120 Tg/yr for the LGM, implying a residence time of CH₄ of 11 and 8 years respectively.

This approach is currently the only way of quantifying CH₄ sources prior to the large-scale anthropogenic impact on the CH₄ cycle. However, some caveats accompany our budgets: (1) they depend on the present-day strength and distribution of each component of the budget; these are somewhat uncertain and further revision of PIH and LGM budgets could result from improving knowledge of today's CH₄ cycle; (2) uncertainties surround the estimate of wetland exploitation since PIH, due to an incomplete coverage of the globe and to changing method and classification used in the available inventory studies; (3) we assume that the present-day relationship between wetland, vegetation and topography remained identical through time, although other parameters such as soil texture and permeability could modify this link; (4) PIH wild fires and animals are poorly constrained as no inventory exists; (5) the LGM vegetation map is reconstructed from sporadic paleodata whose quality has not been asserted unequivocally, and there is clearly some arbitrariness in drawing vegetation boundaries. However when tested in a one-dimensional multi-box photochemical model, the PIH and LGM fluxes reproduce the load of CH₄ in the interglacial and glacial atmosphere fairly well.

The change in CH₄ sources from PIH to LGM is dominated by variations in wetland contribution, which decreased by about a half from interglacial to glacial conditions. Note that the dominant role of wetlands was already hypothesized qualitatively in previous works (Stauffer et al., 1988; Raynaud et al., 1988; Khalil and Rasmussen, 1989; Chappellaz et al., 1990). In our quantitative analysis, the decrease dominated in the Northern mid and high latitudes, where the decrease is 43 Tg/yr compared to 17 Tg/yr for regions south of 20°N. In analysis of the longer

time series of methane variations, however, it has been inferred that it was precipitation changes at low latitudes, more so than variations in ice sheet extent over North America and Europe, that caused the methane variations during the last glaciation (Chappellaz et al., 1990; Petit-Maire et al., 1991; Street-Perrott, 1992). This apparent differing inference about the region dominating the methane change may lie in the dynamics of the wetland distribution from the Holocene Climatic Optimum (9 kyr BP) to the PIH about 200 years ago. Both paleodata and models point to a stronger African-Asian monsoon from 12 to 6 kyr BP than during the present time, due to an increased seasonality of solar radiation during the Early Holocene (COHMAP Members, 1988). Therefore, tropical wetland extent may have been larger at the end of the deglaciation than during the PIH, and so a PIH-LGM comparison may indeed underestimate the role of the tropics during deglaciation. Clearly, evolutive and global vegetation maps from paleodata would be most helpful to ascertain the relative roles of low and high latitudes in CH₄ changes throughout the glacial-interglacial transitions.

On the atmospheric part of the CH₄ budget, calculations done with the photochemical model reveal a weaker effect of CO and NO_x sources on the CH₄ source/concentration relationship at smaller sources of CH₄. For the LGM, the difference between CH₄ mixing ratios calculated with the scenario that assumes only CH₄ source changes and scenarios assuming CH₄-CO-NO changes is only 30 ppbv CH₄ (Fig. 4), which is roughly the uncertainty of the ice core CH₄ measurements (Chappellaz et al., 1990). In other words, although OH (and lifetime) changes for CH₄ are important, CH₄ changes appear to be driven primarily by changes in CH₄ sources. The fact that CH₄ flux changes are able to explain a large part of CH₄ increases from the Last Glacial Maximum to the present is due to feedback effects involving atmospheric OH, the abundance of which is largely controlled by CH₄ levels.

The effect of CH₄ source reductions on OH, CO and O₃ is not negligible either. Table 4 shows that methane changes in the pre-industrial Holocene could have meant a 24% higher global OH abundance, consistent with 23% less CO and 41% less O₃. Unfortunately there are no records of CO and O₃ with which to compare these results.

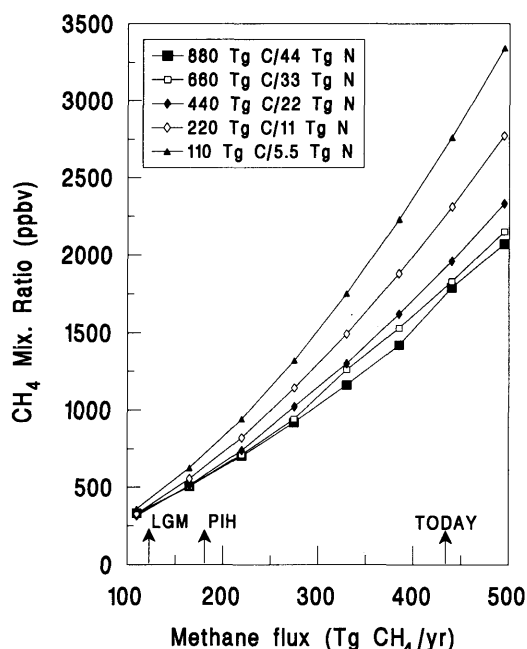


Fig. 4. Steady-state CH₄ concentration obtained by the one-dimensional photochemical model as a function of surface CH₄, CO and NO fluxes.

The dominance of the CH₄ source in setting CH₄ levels has been pointed out in other model analyses of LGM CH₄ levels (McElroy, 1989; Pinto and Khalil, 1991; Valentin, 1990), although these models use different fluxes to fit the ice-core record of CH₄. For example, with a one-dimensional model and LGM temperature, Pinto and Khalil (1991) deduce a flux of 90 Tg CH₄/yr; McElroy (1989) reports 180 Tg CH₄/yr for 350 ppbv inferred with a one-dimensional model at present-day temperature. A two-dimensional model, which differs from our model's present-day CH₄ flux by less than 10%, yields 180 Tg CH₄/yr for the LGM (Valentin, 1990). The large range among the models is also found for PIH conditions (see Thompson et al., 1993, for discussion). Some of these discrepancies probably result from model differences in CO, NO and OH distributions, as well as other physical features of the models. Using the ice core CH₄ record to evaluate which assumptions about historic emissions are realistic gives only one constraint against which to gauge the models. Unfortunately, for trace gases other than

CH₄ that have been measured in ice cores (e.g., HCHO, H₂O₂, methanesulfonic acid) interpretation of the record is even more difficult.

5. Summary and conclusions

The pre-industrial source of CH₄ from wetlands has been estimated and added to budgets for other activities to give total CH₄ fluxes. Human impacts on the biosphere since the beginning of industrialization are evaluated to deduce a wetland coverage of 6260×10^9 m², a wetland emission of 135 Tg CH₄/yr and a total CH₄ source of 180 Tg/yr for the pre-industrial Holocene.

Correlations between wetlands and slope of terrain and between wetlands and vegetation types have been used with a global vegetation map for the LGM to deduce a wetland surface of 2615×10^9 m² and a wetland emission of 75 Tg CH₄/yr for this period. Combined with other natural source estimates, we deduce a LGM source of 120 Tg CH₄/yr.

Uncertainties on these estimates arise from assumptions on today's budget and the use of proxy data to deduce PIH and LGM CH₄ emissions. Improving knowledge of present-day fluxes and terrain characteristics during the LGM may help to reduce these uncertainties in the future.

Incorporation of our CH₄ sources for the PIH and LGM periods into a photochemical model gives CH₄ levels in good agreement with observations of ice cores CH₄. This is in large measure due to the feedback between OH and CH₄ regardless of assumptions made about historic CO and NO fluxes. However, these sources are near the lower end of published estimates deduced from other photochemical models.

Future measurements of reactive trace species (CH₃Cl, OCS) in ice cores may help to further constrain model results. Also a test of the CH₄ budgets inferred in this study would be to perform isotopic measurements of CH₄ in ice cores.

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